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ABSTRACT

Questions concerning academic and vocational questions were answered by examining how legislation affects and corrects sex role stereotyping, societal attitudes and sex bias, and employment patterns of men and women at present and in the future. Educational practices that promote sex discrimination were investigated in the following areas: Enrollment in particular educational programs, counseling bias, teacher attitude, instructional materials, and educational leadership. Sex role stereotyping in vocational education was found to occur in all program areas and on all levels ranging from administrators to students. Through the identification of societal and attitudinal factors that contribute to sex role stereotyping in employment and educational practices, it was discovered that not one set of elements existed, but an interwoven set of circumstances, which are tolerated if not accepted by society. For vocational education to act as an example for change for other areas of education, leadership must be willing to initiate changes starting with their own attitudes. (TA)

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COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
VOCATIONAL, TECHNICAL, AND INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION
FLORIDA STATE UNIVERSITY
Tallahassee, Florida

CORRECTION OF

SEX DISCRIMINATION AND SEX STEREOTYPING

IN EDUCATION

by

1975-76 EPDA Awardees

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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INTRODUCTION

> "We are at the beginning of an era when the inroads of poverty, hunger, and disease will be lessened and when men and women everywhere will have it within their power to develop their potential capacities to the maximum."
>
> John F. Kennedy
> ("American Women," 1963)

Are we as vocational educators providing the opportunities for students to develop their maximum potentials? Are students allowed access to all programs in which they are interested? Are students provided with learning materials and curriculum that emphasize the person rather than the "sex" of the person? Are students' career choices limited or enhanced by counseling? What is the relationship between the employment of women and their earlier decisions about careers? What are the actual practices in academic and vocational education of students?

These questions will be answered by examining: (1) how legislation affects and corrects sex role stereotyping; (2) societal attitudes and sex bias; and (3) employment patterns of men and women at present and in the future. The educational practices that promote sex discrimination will be investigated in the following areas: (1) enrollment in particular educational programs; (2) counseling bias; (3) teacher attitude; (4) instructional materials; and (5) educational leadership.

LEGISLATION AFFECTING SEX DISCRIMINATION

Legal differences in sex roles can be traced back to the beginning of civilization. In ancient Greece, men were citizens and women were slaves. Roman law classified men as adults and women as children. The eldest son inherited all property, including women and slaves. Roman law became the bases of English Common Law which in turn is the foundation of American law. (Steele, 1974)

A review of legislation affecting sex roles in the United States during the 19th and early 20th centuries reveals the continued sex bias that has erupted into the awareness peaks of the 1960's-1970's. (Heath, 1974; Steele, 1974) Women won the right to vote with the passage of the Nineteenth Amendment to the Constitutions in 1920. Women have exercised their right to vote since 1920, but nearly fifty more years elapsed before women became irate enough about their social position to form into activist groups for their own benefit. In 1923, an act authorizing but not mandating equal pay for equal work in the Federal Civil Service became law. Although the law remained on the books, women were not promoted into higher civil service positions and remained in relatively non-responsible positions and clerical jobs.

Women have shared and taken over "men's" jobs when needed. During World War II, women were employed in a variety of industrial occupations and "Rosie the Riveter" became the recruitment ad to employ women in the war-time effort.

But as soon as the men began to return from the war, the opportunities for employment of women reverted to the pre-war sexist role definitions.

Since 1960, more and more specific legislation and court decisions have combined to try to eliminate sex discrimination. In 1961, with impetus from Eleanor Roosevelt, President Kennedy issued Executive Order 10980, establishing the President's Commission on the Status of Women (December 14, 1961). The Equal Pay Act (P.L. 88-38, June 10, 1963) requires payment of equal salaries and wages for substantially equal work without regard for sex. In 1963, also, the President's Commission on the Status of Women reported its findings. Special areas of interest to women examined by the Commission included civil and political rights, education, federal employment, protective labor legislation and portrayal of women by the mass media.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Acts of 1964 (P.L. 88-352, July 2, 1964) prohibits discrimination in employment by private employers, employment agencies or labor unions. Title VII specifically excluded state and local governments from its definition of "employer" and specified that Title VII did not apply to educational institutions.

In October, 1968, an addition to Executive Order 11246 (originally issued in 1965) prohibited discrimination based on sex, race, religion, or national origin by contractors and subcontractors of the Federal Government. Revised Order 4 in

early 1973 mandated that these contractors establish specific goals and timetables for employment of women.

The National Women's Political Caucus was organized in 1970, and increased pressure from this group contributed to some changes in existing legislation. Additions prohibiting sex discrimination amended the Public Health Act (P.L. 92-157, November 18, 1971, Section 110) which forced approximately 1,400 schools and training centers in the medical and medical-related fields to admit women as freely as men if they wished to continue to receive federal aid. The Revenue Act of 1971 (P.L. 92-178, December 10, 1971) included an income tax deduction for child care costs, recognizing that increasing numbers of women were contributing to the family income.

In March, 1972, amendments to Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 brought the equal employment opportunity provisions to include educational institutions (P.L. 92-261, March 24, 1972). No longer could school districts pay women less than men for equal work.

The most comprehensive legislation to date prohibiting sex discrimination are the provisions of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (P.L. 92-318, June 23, 1972). The title specifies "no person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participating in, be denied the benefits of or be subjected to discrimination under any education activity receiving Federal financial assistance." In the June 4, 1975, Federal Register, the final regulations are

listed. These include sections on the coverage of the law, on admissions, on treatment of students once they are in school, on physical education and athletics, on organizations in schools and on campuses, benefits, services, and financial aid. Several sources may be consulted for more detailed information on Title IX (Herzmark, 1975; Steele, 1974; Women's Equity Action League Washington Report, June and December, 1975). Compliance with Title IX regulations has not yet fully occurred, especially in vocational education. Institutions of vocational education must attempt to notify and recruit women and men students previously denied admission to specific programs. Schools receiving federal assistance may not specify in written material that particular programs are closed to certain sexes. Students may not be discriminated on the basis of sex in counseling. Tests used in counseling may not be different based on sex only and classes with primarily one-sex enrollment must not be attributed to sex-biased counseling and placement.

Sex-labeled jobs have traditionally placed women in the lower paying positions. These positions seldom offer upward mobility opportunities, which perpetuate existing problems. (Oppenheimer, 1970)

Senator Walter Mondale in January, 1976, introduced the Women's Vocational Education Amendments (S. 2603). This bill was subsequently referred to the Senate Subcommittee on Education. The proposed bill calls for balanced representation in all areas of vocational education including equal

representation on the National and State Advisory Councils. In addition, special emphasis will be given to programs in counseling, curriculum development, materials, research and training to help overcome sex bias in vocational education programs. ("Vocational Education: As If Title IX Never Happened," December, 1975)

MYTHS AND EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

There are five stereotypes that must be corrected and laid to rest before opportunities in education and employment are equalized. Stereotype I: Girls will marry and will spend the rest of their lives in the suburbs happily raising children and keeping house; Stereotype 2: Women are really happy as they are and do not want to work--they are not willing to take on the heavy responsibilities of men; Stereotype 3: Women are basically weaker than men; Stereotype 4: Women are not available for jobs involving late hours, overtime, weekend work or travel because they are busy running homes and raising children; Stereotype 5: Neither men nor women like to be supervised by women--thus women should not be placed in responsibility ladened positions. (Hall, 1973)

Sex discrimination and sex stereotyping begins long before a student becomes a part of "formal education." Little girls wear pink and play with dolls; little boys wear blue and play with trucks. Girls role play as nurses or mommies; boys role play as doctors or daddies. These early moldings

of attitudes are a result of the interaction of family, peer, religious, and community influences.

Society's attitudes are reflected in the past and present employment of women. Oppenheimer (1970) argues that the U. S. labor market is actually two markets--male and female--and that men and women in most cases do not compete for the same jobs. The expansion of "women's" occupations after World War II led not to demand for additional labor but to demand for additional "female" labor. (Van Dusen, 1976) However, the principal sources of employment for women today, as it was in 1940, are the clerical and service industries and, more particularly, professional services such as medical and health, education and legal occupations.

While little effort is being made to guide women into higher paying, less female-stereotyped occupations, the National Planning Association estimates that by 1980, 20.1 million job openings will occur in primarily traditionally male occupations for which high schools offer vocational courses with entry-level preparation. (Roby, 1975)

Oppenheimer has suggested a number of reasons for the persistence of sex labels in certain jobs. (Oppenheimer, 1970)

1. Teaching, nursing, and secretarial work have traditionally been classified as "cheap" labor even though these occupations are actually skilled labor. Because the work life for many women is interrupted, they are willing to accept less pay than is commensurate with their skills and training.

> "Krebs (1971) also concludes that women are overeducated for most of the jobs they do. Experience gained in implementing the Equal Pay Act indicated that discriminatory wage practices do exist." (Sex Discrimination and Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education, 1975)

2. Training required for these occupations are acquired before employment, thus employers need not invest time and money in training on the job.

3. Since these lower level jobs do not require long term committments and extensive sacrifice of time, they are well suited to the job requirements for individuals classified as "second income earners."

4. The universal availability of these occupations lend themselves to the mobility of married women.

5. These jobs have traditionally been held by women.

In 1974, 47 percent of all white women between 25 and 34 years old had completed high school but had no college training, and an additional 33 percent had completed some college. The comparable figures for white males are 38 percent with a high school degree and 44 percent with some college. (Van Dusen, 1976)

> "There are several stereotypic explanations for these sex differences in educational attainment. First, it is argued, a family is more likely to invest in a son's education than in a daughter's, in the belief that the son must be able to find a job, but the daughter may not have to. Second, even if the daughter intends to work, most jobs open to her do not require a college degree: skills necessary for secretarial, clerical, and operative positions can be learned on the job. And third, so the argument goes, the daughter will undoubtedly get married and have children, and will in any case stop her education at that point." (Van Dusen, 1976)

Table I compares the 1972 (actual), 1980 and 1985 (projected) employment trends in major occupational groups. The actual and future trends can help vocational educators plan the type and scope of future school programs.

The percentage of females remaining single is rising. In 1960, 28 percent of all women were single; in 1974, 39 percent of all women were single, an increase of one-third. These statistics indicates what appears to be a growing trend in women remaining single. Of all women in the labor force in 1974, 42 percent were single, widowed, or separated and thus economically on their own. Another 19 percent of the female labor force were married to men with less than $7,000 annual income. Women's salaries often determine the difference between low or middle income brackets for their families.

Salaries between men and women working in essentially the same occupations often differ drastically. In 1973, the median annual salary of women who work full time and year-around was $6,335. The median annual salary for men was $11,186. Also, white women can expect to make only 60 percent of the salary of a man with the same amount of education. The percentage for black women or women of Spanish origins is even lower. (Sex Discrimination and Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education, 1975; Van Dusen, 1976)

Furthermore, female-intensive industries continue to be considerably lower paying than male-intensive industries. For example, Waldman and McEaddy report:

TABLE I

EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK

Occupational Group	1972		1980		1985		Openings, 1972-1985		
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Growth	Replacement	Total
White-collar workers	39,092	47.8	49,300	51.5	53,700	52.9	14,600	24,200	38,800
Professional and Technical workers	11,459	14.0	15,000	15.7	17,000	16.8	5,600	6,400	12,000
Managers and Administrators	8,032	9.8	10,100	10.5	10,500	10.3	2,400	3,500	5,900
Salesworkers	5,354	6.6	6,300	6.6	6,500	6.4	1,100	2,700	3,800
Clerical workers	14,247	17.4	17,900	18.7	19,700	19.4	5,400	11,600	17,000
Blue-collar workers	28,576	35.0	31,800	33.1	32,800	32.3	4,200	9,600	13,800
Craft and kindred workers	10,810	13.2	12,300	12.8	13,000	12.8	2,200	3,100	5,300
Operatives	13,549	16.6	15,000	15.6	15,300	15.1	1,800	5,500	7,200
Nonfarm laborers	4,217	5.2	4,500	4.7	4,500	4.4	200	1,000	1,300
Service workers	10,966	13.4	12,700	13.3	13,400	13.2	2,400	6,100	8,500
Private household workers	1,437	1.8	1,300	1.3	1,100	1.1	-400	1,100	700
Other service workers	9,529	11.6	11,400	12.0	12,300	12.1	2,800	5,000	7,800
Farm workers	3,069	3.8	2,000	2.1	1,600	1.6	-1,400	1,500	100
Total	81,703	100.0	95,800	100.0	101,500	100.0	41,400	19,800	61,200

> "In January, 1973, most industries paying average weekly earnings of less than $100 were female-intensive. Several were paying under $90 a week, while the weekly paycheck for all industries averaged $138. The average salary for all manufacturing workers was $159 a week in January, 1973. For those in manufacturing industries that were female-intensive, the average was much lower--for example the apparel industry, in which 81% of the employees were women, paid average weekly salaries of only $93. (Roby, 1975)

Employment patterns for men and women are changing, perhaps based on societal pressures or change mandated by legislation. It is now common to see men as airline stewards or women as linepersons. Many hospitals employ male nurses, and construction sites employ women in a variety of tasks. Around the country specific programs to overcome sex discrimination have been initiated by industry. In Denver, Colorado, women have been placed in such occupations as carpenters, cement masons, electricians, painters, plumbers, roofers, business machine repairers, forklift operators, mechanics, telephone installers, and tool and die makers as a result of a program developed by the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training of the U. S. Department of Labor in 1971.

In Madison, Wisconsin, the Division of Apprenticeship and Training of the Wisconsin Department of Industry, Labor, and Human Relations placed women as lithographers, camera operators, sign painters, television repairers, newspaper printers, meat cutters, and die makers in apprenticeship programs.

In San Francisco a private apprenticeship program placed women in jobs as carpenters, electricians, machinists and dental technicians.

Women have joined together in organizations working to increase the number of skilled jobs and employment opportunities for women such as the National Association of Women in Construction, Women in Technical Trades and Professions, and the American Association of Women Truck Drivers. ("Steps to Opening the Skilled Trades to Women," 1974)

The Armed Services have traditionally provided equal job opportunities for women in jobs which have been classified as non-combat. In general, women may be trained as aircraft mechanics but may only be stationed in non-combat zones.

FUTURE TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT

What are the employment trends for the future? The occupational areas that should experience the most rapid growth are shown in Table II (Professional and Technical Occupations) and Table III (Skilled Trades and Occupations).

Both tables indicate actual employment figures in 1970, women employed in those occupations, and the anticipated annual openings in these occupations by 1980. These tables are important to vocational educators for they provide some insight into training needs anticipated by business and industry. ("Employment Trends," 1975)

TABLE II

PROFESSIONAL & TECHNICAL OCCUPATIONS

The Number Of Workers Is Expected To Increase Rapidly In The Following Occupations By 1980:

	Total Employment, 1970	Women As Percent Of Total	Average Annual Openings To 1980
Employment counselor	8,000	50	1,100
Marketing research worker	23,000	*	2,600
Occupational therapist	7,500	90	1,150
Physical therapist	15,000	66	1,600
Programmer	200,000	**	34,700
Systems analyst	100,000	**	22,700
Urban planner	8,000	**	750

*Majority are men.
**Data are not available.
***Majority are women.

TABLE III

SKILLED TRADES

Some Of The Skilled Trades In Which Rapid Employment Increases Are Anticipated Are:

	Total Employment, 1970	Women As Percent Of Total	Average Annual Openings To 1980
Air conditioning, refrigeration and heating mechanic	115,000	**	7,900
Aircraft mechanic	140,000	**	6,000
Appliance serviceman	220,000	**	11,000
Automobile mechanic	610,000	**	23,300
Business machine serviceman	80,000	**	6,000
Electrician (construction)	190,000	**	12,000
Industrial machinery repairman	180,000	**	9,000
Instrument maker--mechanical	8,000	**	400
Instrument repairman	95,000	**	5,900
Operating engineer (construction machinery operator)	310,000	**	15,000
Plumber and pipefitter	350,000	**	20,000
Television and radio service technician	132,000	**	4,500
Truck and bus mechanic	115,000	**	5,200

The largest increase in demand for employment will be in mid-level positions that require vocational training but not necessarily a college degree. Two especially promising fields are the health occupations and engineering. Table IV shows those occupations that are also expected to have an increase in job openings.

Employment trends are valuable indicators of what the future demands for vocational educational training should be. Before looking at what changes must be made in vocational educational programs, an examination of past enrollments in vocational education will show the inequities between programs for males and females.

> Although there are glaring inequities in girls' physical education and athletic programs, they are of minor importance compared to the sexual inequities in vocational and technical education. It is still common practice to track students by sex for vocation training. Such tracking usually begins in the junior high school, where girls are steered into homemaking and boys into industrial arts. Even where sex prerequisites for these courses are absent, vocational training programs reflect rigid notions of appropriate masculine and feminine occupations." (Trecker, 1973)

Although women comprise 55.5% of total vocational education enrollments and two-thirds of all secondary vocational enrollments, women are concentrated in non-wage-earning home economics and in the health and office occupations. This vocational training relates directly to those fields in which women comprise the largest majority of workers. Table V depicts the total enrollment by vocational program and sex for fiscal year 1972. ("What is the Role of Federal Assistance for Vocational Education?" 1974)

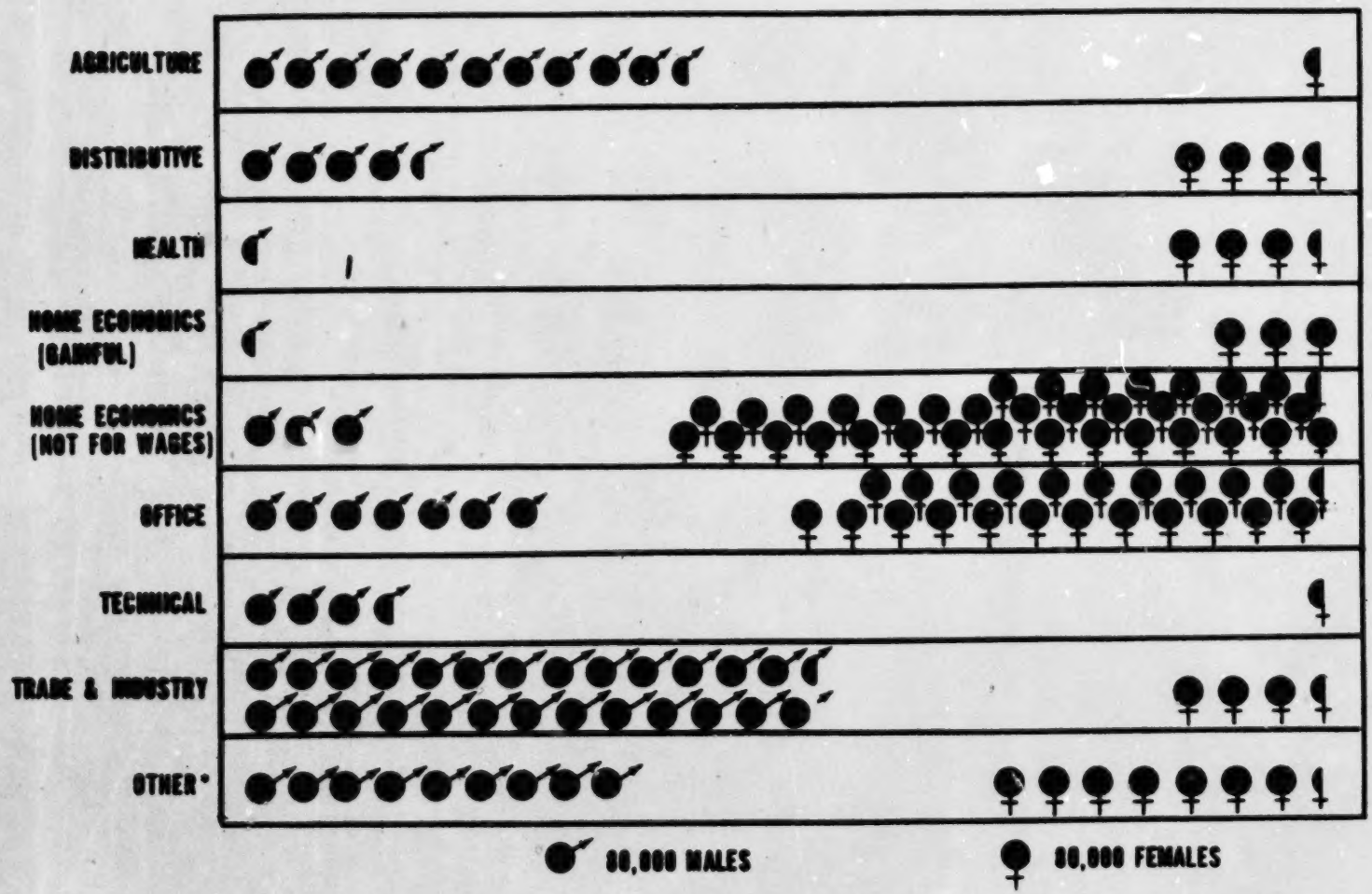
TABLE IV

OTHER OCCUPATIONS

Other Occupations Which Are Expected To Offer A Large Number Of Openings Are:

	Total Employment, 1970	Women As Percent Of Total	Average Annual Openings To 1980
Accountant	491,000	20	31,200
Architect	33,000	4	2,700
Chemist	137,000	7	9,400
Civil engineer	185,000	*	10,000
Dentist	103,000	2	5,400
Dietitian	30,000	90	2,300
Economist	33,000	10	2,300
Electrical engineer	235,000	*	12,200
Industrial engineer	125,000	*	8,000
Life scientist	180,000	10	9,900
Mathematician	75,000	10	4,600
Medical record librarian	13,000	***	1,500
Personnel worker	160,000	25	9,100
Physician	305,000	7	22,000
Physicist	48,000	4	3,500
Psychologist	40,000	25	3,700
Public relations worker	75,000	25	4,400
Recreation worker	13,500	50	1,700
Registered nurse	700,000	99	69,000
Rehabilitation counselor	13,000	30	1,600
School counselor	54,000	**	5,200
Social worker	170,000	**	18,000
Speech pathologist and audiologist	22,000	75	2,200
Statistician	24,000	33	1,400
Veterinarian	25,000	2	1,500

TOTAL VOCATIONAL ENROLLMENT BY PROGRAM & SEX, FY 1972



*Group guidance, remedial programs, and special programs

("What Is the Role of Federal Assistance for Vocational Education?" 1974)

TABLE V

More specifically, 95 percent of the enrollment in agriculture is male; 90 percent of the enrollment in technical is male; 82 percent of the enrollment in trade and industrial is male; 92 percent of the enrollment in home economics is female (only 2 percent for wage-earning home economics); 87 percent of the enrollment in office education is female; 85 percent of the enrollment in health is female; and 50 percent of the enrollment in distributive education is male while 50 percent of the enrollment is female.

The inequality in enrollment figures shown in Table V points to the growing need to rebalance enrollment in vocational education programs. Linking employment trends for the future and the need for training in these fields will provide a basis for program planning by vocational educators.

COUNSELING

How do students make career choices? Generally, guidance counselors provide aid in helping students make career decisions. The process of career choice begins in the elementary school years and continues throughout a lifetime.

In elementary school, counselors administer and interpret educational achievement examinations. A study by Tittle demonstrated the sex-role stereotypes and content bias in well-known and well-used educational achievement tests. (Tittle, 1973) These tests are used frequently by counselors

and help them make decisions on student tracking and ability rating during all phases of school life.

Middle or junior high schools are critical decision-making times for students. If students are allowed exploratory activities in elementary and middle school, decisions about likes and dislikes will be more easily made when high school course selection comes.

High school decision making becomes the stepping stones to future life patterns. It is still common for counselors to track boys into shop courses and girls into home economics. Even when male or female prerequisites are absent, traditional notions about courses being male-or-female related are exhibited by enrollment figures in vocational education programs. (Sex Discrimination and Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education, 1975) Counselors are poorly trained in their knowledge about occupations and labor market trends. Counselors traditionally provide more information to students about academic rather than career planning, despite the overflow of persons with college degrees and the labor force needs for persons trained with less than college requirements. Counselors tend to have academic bias and hesitate to encourage girls as well as boys into vocational training. Counselors need special sources to continuously update their information about employment needs and trends.

In response to the need for more accurate and current information about career and vocational planning for students

in the State of Florida, the 1970 legislature created a new guidance tool, the Occupational Specialist. A paraprofessional counselor, the Occupational Specialist, provides special guidance services to the early school leaver and especially vocational education students. The Occupational Specialist has broadened the scope of school guidance throughout the State by supplementing and adding to the Guidance Team responsibilties.

Placement of students in post-secondary educational institutions or employment is now a mandated task of counselors and Occupational Specialists in Florida. This responsibility extends to not only graduates of the school system but early school leavers as well. Formal followup procedures to receive program evaluation from former students and graduates is also a legislated burden of the Guidance Team. All these new tasks help make counselors more responsible to the students as well as cognizant of labor market demands. (Chapter 73-235, Laws of Florida)

TEACHER BEHAVIOR

Students are most closely associated with their teachers during their school years. Teachers, like counselors, must be made aware of the sex discrimination and sex stereotyping as it relates to their classrooms. In the early grades, teachers often have the boys moving furniture and the girls performing the "housekeeping" chores of the classroom.

These teacher assignment of chores displays inadvertant sex bias.

> "The removal of stereotypes and the development of a curriculum which is appropriate for both female and male students is a complex procedure requiring the cooperation of teachers, administrators, counselors, and educational publishers. The role of teachers is especially important." (Trecker, 1973)

The author goes on to point out that in some curriculum such as mathematics there are a few standard textbooks and it is a relatively easy task to change from male-female emphasis to a "people"-centered approach. In areas such as humanities, literature, family life and sex education, it is a difficult task to control the sex emphasis when a variety of textbooks and teaching styles are used. This can only be accomplished through the cooperative efforts of the teachers involved in the various interrelated disciplines.

Colleges of Education are beginning to attack this sex bias in teacher education pre- and in-service programs. Attempts are being made to prepare non-sexist teachers by pointing to the inequalities in existing curriculum materials as well as teacher classroom behavior. (Journal of Teacher Education, Winter, 1975)

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Teachers can be trained to develop a "nonsexist" approach to education. However, the curriculum materials that teachers use may still display sex bias.

One of the most thorough studies conducted to determine sex-stereotyping in textbooks was conducted by a group in Princeton, New Jersey. This group surveyed 134 textbooks published by 18 companies in use at the time in the New Jersey schools.

> "The same old sex roles appear even in the "newer" series. In terms of sheer quantity, boys and men are present in the readers overwhelmingly more than girls and women. The 6:1 discrepancy between male and female biographies is particularly striking. Women appear in 25 different occupations, men in 147. Furthermore, men appear in a wide range of jobs, whereas women are limited to traditionally female pursuits such as secretary, teacher, nurse, and telephone operator. (Levy & Stacy, 1973)

Levy and Stacy (1973) present a thorough analysis of the sex inequities in math, science, history and social studies textbooks. They are particularly upset by a new phonics program for kindergarteners and first graders being used in 8,000 classrooms that present the 21 consonants as "boy" letters and the five vowels as "girl" letters.

Publishing companies are actively attempting to develop non-sexist textbooks. State adoption policy and adequate content area often hinder sales of the new, non-sexist books. McGraw-Hill Book Company has available for further classroom teacher reference, "Guidelines for Equal Treatment of the Sexes in McGraw-Hill Book Company Publications."

SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

Many schools have developed unique approaches to promoting non-sexist discrimination that go beyond the counselor,

teacher, and textbook triangle. Some of these are:

1. Changing course titles from autobody repairmar to autobody mechanic. (Johnson and Kelley, 1975)

2. Distributing catalogs and brochures that describe vocational programs without the emphasis on sex-stereotyping; for instance, omission of the exclusive use of the pronoun "he" when referring to most programs, and omission of the exclusive use of the pronoun "she" when referring to secretarial and nursing courses.

3. Re-arranging physical facilities of educational institutions of the classes traditionally attracting male or female students are situated near each other.

4. Publicizing course offerings in non-traditional locations such as women's section of newspapers, beauty shops, bank mailers, etc.

5. Increasing the ratio of male to females on advisory committees.

In service re-education is needed for all school staff, especially teachers and counselors. An awareness of the unequal opportunities which exist in all educational areas and the development of non-sexist textbooks, curriculum and supplementary materials should be subjects in this type of special training. (Sex Discrimination and Sex Stereotyping in Vocational Education, 1975)

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Women, who constitute a majority of the public education teaching profession, are not equally represented in

administrative positions in public education. In 1970-1971, 67 percent of all public school teachers were women but 15 percent were principals and only .6 percent were superintendents. (Lyon and Saario, 1973)

In 1922 women were 10.5 percent of the membership of the school boards in the country. Today they are about the same--10.1 percent. Of the 52 presidents of state boards of education in 1972, only 4 percent were women. As for state directors of vocational education, there are no women directors among the 50 states. Women account for 12 percent of the chairpersons in the state councils of vocational education and 14 percent of the membership. On the National Advisory Council, only 18 percent of the members are women, 4 of the 22. Vocational-technical education is a power base for male educators, despite the fact that the majority of enrollments in vocational education programs are female. Unless strong action is taken, the power will remain with men.

Male dominated leadership occurs in other areas of vocational education. Thirty-nine percent of EPDA interns were women in 1974, much to the credit of the program. However, there were no female project directors, and only 17 of the 107 members of the EPDA Advisory Committee were women. (Steele, 1974)

For vocational education to act as an example for change for the other areas of education leadership must be willing to initiate changes starting with their own attitudes.

SUMMARY

Sex role stereotyping in vocational education occurs in all program areas and on all levels ranging from administrators to students. Sex stereotyping is not unique to the field of vocational education but instead echoes the bias held by society as a whole. In this paper we have tried to identify some of the societal and attitudinal factors that contribute to sex role stereotyping in employment and educational practices. Through this identification process, we have discovered not one set of elements but an interwoven set of circumstances tolerated if not accepted by society.

The effectiveness of society's efforts to eliminate sex role stereotyping will be measured by the actual attitudes, education and employment of those members of our society who are now infants.

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